R E P O R T R E S U M E S

ED 019 154 RC 000 415

TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE.

BY- LAMBERTS, J.J. AND OTHERS

ARIZONA STATE DEPT. OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, PHOENIX

PUB DATE 62

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.50 HC-$2.48 60P.

DESCRIPTORS- BILINGUALISM, DICTION, ENGLISH, ENGLISH INSTRUCTION, *ENGLISH (SECOND LANGUAGE), *LINGUISTICS, LANGUAGE HANDICAPS, PATTERN DRILLS (LANGUAGE), NON ENGLISH SPEAKING, PRONUNCIATION INSTRUCTION, PHONETICS, *TEACHING METHODS, TEACHING TECHNIQUES, TEACHING PROCEDURES, VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT, *AMERICAN INDIANS, NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH, MODERN LANGUAGE ASSN., LINGUISTIC SOCIETY OF AMERICA, INSTITUTE FOR INTERNATIONAL EDUC., LADO ENGLISH LANGUAGE SERIES, CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS,

SEVEN PAPERS ARE COMPILED UNDER THE GENERAL SUBJECT HEADING OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE. LINGUISTICS IS DISCUSSED IN RELATION TO TEACHING ENGLISH AND IN RELATION TO TEACHERS OF INDIAN CHILDREN. THE LADO ENGLISH LANGUAGE SERIES IS REVIEWED. A REPORT BY NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH PRESENTS FACTS RELATIVE TO TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN THE UNITED STATES AND OTHER COUNTRIES. IDEAS FOR GREETINGS AND SIMPLE REQUEST PHRASES FOR TEACHERS, AS WELL AS GENERALIZED PROCEDURES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH, ARE INCLUDED. (SF)

ED019154

Teaching English as a Second Language

Migrant Education.

English as a second language

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

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FOREWORD

An impression has been created, by the general public, that all one needs to teach English to non-English speaking students is a knowledge of the language. Obviously, this is far from true; teachers who have taught this type of student have discovered that this would be wasting not only their time but the students . Teachers must have a knowledge of the structure of the language and how it functions in order to teach economically and efficiently. The teaching of a second language is hard work. This work will bring success if teachers organize the material to be taught and discipline themselves to make their students do the work.

It has been, and will be said, of course, that many teachers of children learning a second language are able to achieve good results without the explicit aid of specific linguistic knowledge. This may very well be true, but we believe that a careful consideration of the basis of successful teaching will reveal that it can often be traced to a kind of "native wisdon" or intutive grasp of the very facts and attitudes taught by linguistic science, combined with the use of teaching materials which have been influenced by the finding of linguistic science.

The student learning a second language has a tendency, which teachers are always fighting, is to use the sounds and patterns of his own language in speaking English, because he does not hear the difference. He must not only learn the sounds of the new language but learn not to use the sounds of his own language. Language learning consists in breaking old habits and acquiring new ones. Teachers recognize

that specific drill is needed to make the recognition and systematizing of sounds in English automatic for their Indian students.

There has been far too much loose talk from people who know too little about the application of linguistics to language teaching. There are those who talk of the "linguistic method" of language teaching, as if to oppose it to some hypothetical "non-linguistic method" used in the past. Linguistics is not a teaching method, but a growing body of knowledge and theory; and though it may offer helpful answers to some of the problems of language teaching, it surely does not know all the answers.

The channels of communication have been poor not only between teachers and linguists; they have been equally poor between the various groups of teachers, of second languages, and even between various groups of linguists. Too often teachers suddenly given the task of teaching a second language have no way of finding out how others have approached the problems involved in this task.

Second language teachers as well as teachers of English, as a first language, and linguists should be willing to talk to each other and neither group consider itself beyond enlightenment by the other. It has been pointed out that many times linguists antagonize teachers. Even with the best of good will on both sides, these antagonisms stem from such fundamental differences in viewpoints that they will not soon disappear. This is not based on such relatively trivial antagonisms as those caused by the terminological excesses of the linguists, or by their enthusiastic exaggeration of the importance of a linguistic approach to language teaching. It stems more from the idea that linguists seem to deny certain cultural values that

teachers have long cherished.

First of all when we speak of applied linguistics in the classroom, we are dealing with only one aspect of the language teaching problem. Language teaching is composed of three different elements. First there is the language itself, its sound and its structure. Just because we speak a language does not by any means imply that we know the best way of analyzing and presenting it, this is an area where we may, indeed, look to the linguist for enlightenment and guidance. Next there is the pedagogical problem of teaching the language in such a way that the students will learn it. It would be sad indeed if we taught them now to speak English only to find that they could say nothing worth listening to. And here we run into the greatest antagonism from classroom teachers. Our cultural traditions places the highest value of all on the third aspect of teaching, of course we want our students to read and know what they read. However, linguists have no contribution to make in this area and, as teachers, we tend to look down on it as a non-intellectual technology which deals only with the mechanics of language. We scorn it as being only fit to teach a Berlitz-type language, and fit for nothing else. Teachers are very sure they can make very little contributions to language teaching. But of course they can. For the great ideas cannot be gotten merely for the asking but only by learning the language first. If only to get the great ideas faster we should exploit the technology of linguistics to the utmost.

Review of The Lado English Language Series

The set constitutes teaching materials for the Intensive Course In English of the English Language Institute, University of Michigan. It includes the following four titles: 1) English Pronunciation, 2) English Vocabulary, 3) English Sentence Patterns, and 4) English Pattern Practices.

The course of study is set up in this manner:

(1) The entire first day is devoted to the introductory lesson of the special alphabet in English Pronunciation.

(2) English Sentence Patterns, English Pronunciation, and Lessons in Vocabulary (are used together after the first day).

(3) English Pattern Practice may be used after having some previous presentation in English Sentence Pattern.

This series was written for Spanish speakers of average education but may be used with some selection and shift of emphasis for students of other linguistic backgrounds. Complete directions are given with each book.

I English Pronunciation

When a student hears the spoken language he often fails to understand what is being said. It is because of the inability of the student to recognize the sounds of the language. In teaching the English language there is little help that we can get from the spelling of the words. It is necessary, therefore, to have some consistent representative so that the student can understand the sounds. An alphabet of the phonemic representation of the sounds of English is used in this book to help the student understand the different sounds. The entire first day is devoted to teaching this alphabet so that the teachers may make maximum use of it throughout the course.

AIMS OF THE LESSONS

Lessons 1-10

1) to enable the student to distinguish significant features of the sound system in English
2) to enable the student to produce all significant vowel contrasts and the [ɹ] sound satisfactorily
3) to enable the student to use the 2-4 intonation curve in all utterances
4) to reinforce certain items of grammar which may present a problem in pronunciation

Lessons 11-20

1) to enable students to produce all significant consonant contrasts satisfactorily
2) to enable the student to use the 3-2 and the 2-4 intonation curves

3) to enable the student to produce longer utterances with smooth sentence rhythm
4) to reinforce further items of grammar which may present a problem in pronunciation

Lessons 21-30
1) to enable the student to produce consonant clusters and combinations satisfactorily

Lessons 31-35
1) review the sound segments which students find the most difficult to produce.

ORGANIZATION OF THE LESSONS

Lesson XII, p. 96

a) What are the points of articulation for the following sounds? (review)

[d l b k r š n θ ŋ]

b) Practice the following conversation from memory.

Mr. S What is it?
Mr. T It's a letter.
Mr. W Where is it?
Mr. X It's on the table.

c) Pronounce the following sentences.

1. I can read English.
2. They can understand the teacher.
3. He can eat many kinds of food.
4. Mr. Wilson can go by train.

d) Pronunciation of [ɔ ɛ æ]
Pronounce the following contrasts:

[pin] [pen] [pæn]

II English Sentence Patterns

understanding and producing English grammatical structures

The "grammar" lessons here set forth, therefore, consist basically of exercises to develop habits, not explanations or talk about the language. The exercises Dr. Lado uses to develop these habits are pattern practices. In pattern practice the student is led to practice a pattern, changing some elements of that pattern each time by pictures, oral substitution, etc., so that he never repeats the same sentence twice. By this method the pattern itself rather than the particular sentence, is driven intensively into his habit reflexes.*

* Pattern Practice uses pattern practice and has the same aims.

AIM OF THIS BOOK

To reduce to habit what rightfully belongs to habit in the new language so that the mind and personality is freed.*

ORGANIZATION OF THE LESSONS

1) An outline which presents the content of the lesson
   ex. John is like his father. (comparisons with <u>like</u>, <u>the same as</u>, <u>different from</u>) Lesson XV, p. 136
2) A frame that presents the material to be taught to the student.
   ex.

   observe <u>like</u>, <u>the same as</u>, <u>different from</u>
   situation: My coat is brown. Your coat is brown. Pattern:

My coat	is	like	yours.
John	looks	like	his father.
He	works	like	a horse.

3) Illustrative examples
4) Exercises

   My house is large and white and yours is too. There is no difference (descriptive)

   My house is the same as yours. (Student formed statement).

5) Notes to the teacher
6) Review of the example
   ex. John is like his father.
   John is the same height as Paul.

Lessons 1-10 simple
11-20 intermediate
21-35 advanced

III <u>Pattern Practice</u>
Organization of the lessons

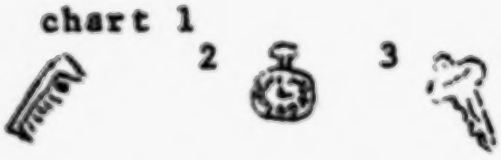
There are sixteen charts at the back of the book which are used with the lessons. These help the student learn to operate the language within a limited vocabulary. The same charts are used in many different lessons but the teacher constantly reviews the original problem.

ex. of chart

chart 1

1	2	3
comb [Kom]	watch [wɑ̈ʧ]	key [Ki]
combs [Komz]	watches [wɑ̈ʧɪz]	keys [Kiz]

chart 1



left side is intended as a clue to help the student produce the item in the right column.

* <u>Pattern Practice</u> uses pattern practice and has the same aims.

Lesson XII, p. 136

1) content of the lesson
   ex. He came in order to get the books. He came for the book. (In order to + class 2 word contrasted with for + class 1 word).
2) review chart X
   1. John and Margaret John can swim but Margaret can't.
   2. Betty and Dick
   3. Jack and Joe
3) Practice chart V
   1. They went to the store for cameras.
   2. They went to the store for typewriters.
   3. They went to the store for ink.

   1. I went to the store in order to buy a camera.
   2. I went to the store in order to buy a typewriter.
   3. I went to the store in order to buy ink.
4) review of this lesson
   conversation for memorization,
   or a story to repeat after the teacher.
5) homework
   done in class first
   done orally using the picture charts
   checked in class next day

IV Lessons In Vocabulary

How selection of materials was made

One can use the various frequency lists to establish a working vocabulary for the foreign student. There are some difficulties here. 1) Most frequency lists are based on counts of written English. We cannot assume that the vocabulary of written English is the same as the vocabulary of spoken English. 2) Many counts are based on spelling similarities alone. In view of this difficult problem these texts approach vocabulary selection form a different point of view. The frequency of any item is made subordinate to the frequency and usefulness of a situation area. The following areas have priority in teaching: 1) formulas of greeting, 2) food, 3) numbers, 4) money, 5) place words, 6) time words, and 7) the human body.

The large body of words which Spanish and English have in common made obligatory the use of cognate words. Some recurrent false cognates are also included.

ORGANIZATION OF THE LESSON

1) review p. 63
   a) students summarize the events that occured in the selection Thomas Arrives in Riverside City.
2) a conversation to introduce the new words
   ex. Thomas Buys Some Clothes

During breakfast Thomas asked about a clothing store. He said, "Where can I buy some clothes? I didn't bring many clothes. I want to buy a new suit, several pairs of socks, and some underwear. I also need a new pair of shoes."

3) special problems

I want to buy a new suit, several pairs of socks and some underwear. Observe the following uses of pair:

He is wearing a pair of blue pants or he is wearing blue pants.

She has a pair of white gloves or she has white gloves.

Pair may be used for those articles which are considered to be composed of two complementary parts.

Note that pair is not used with the following:

Dr. Johnson always wears a white shirt.

Louise has a new coat.

4) Conversation for memorization.

Thomas: I'd like to see some suits.
Clerk: What size do you wear:
Thomas: I don't know.
Clerk: I'll measure you. Size 38.

A person does not actually learn the language until he has learned the culture. The Lado Series is very practical in this aspect. While the students are learning the language they are taught different customs. An example of this would be: learning about shaking hands in the lesson on greetings. The vocabulary chosen is meaningful to the student. The patterns and conversations can be used in everyday life.

One of the most used phrases in the directions to the student is "do not open this book." This series uses the oral approach at the beginning of the course. The less the students use the book, the better. They learn better orally.

In the Lado Series the phonemic alphabet and regular spelling are used somewhat inconsistently. In the books they start out right away with the regular spelling. It would be better if the phonemic alphabet was used along with the regular spelling for a short time.

The pictures in English Pronunciation are not very useful to the student. They can not be understood without the teacher going over them very carefully in class. They would be good for review only.

The Importance of Linguistics
for Teachers of Indian Youngsters . . .

In order to demonstrate why linguistics is or why it may be important in teaching Indian youngsters, one needs to consider first what happens when the teacher has had no linguistic preparation at all. Linguistics, as we ought to realize, is an extremely elastic word and it may apply to anything that has to do with language, whether generally or specifically. In recent years descriptive linguists have run off with the term so that being a descriptivist and being a linguist mean pretty much the same thing.

For the moment I should like to ignore this definition and consider the very minimum of language sophistication. We may be astonished to discover how little of this some persons possess. I am thinking, for instance, of a woman I met on a bus in Chicago who was surprised when I mentioned people speaking languages like Spanish or Polish or Swedish. She knew some of them did, but it had never occurred to her to wonder why. To such an individual -- and there are thousands -- a foreigner (or American Indian) can speak English if he really tries. One shouts louder or talks more slowly or drops into a kind of baby talk. By the law of averages some of these people must have ventured into the teaching of Indians, and one can vision nothing except complete frustration on both sides.

Another kind of person calls himself a linguist who is actually a polyglot. He may be a descriptive linguist; he may not. The two have relatively little relationship. Such an individual has a smattering of two, three, or fifty languages, as the case may be. He can count to ten, ask one's health, date a girl, and order something to eat. Such matters have a kind of susbsitence usefulness and we may even envy people who possess this agility, but it is like the seed that had no depth of earth. The polyglot is commonly at a disadvantage where more than hit-and-run linguistics is required because he is capable of dealing with nothing more than a variety of unsystematized snippets of language curiosities.

A third person will perhaps disdain the title of linguist, for the reason that he is a grammarian -- a traditional one. To him language study consists of finding parts of speech, of laying down rules of correctness. To such a person language consists of a variety of things to be committed to memory and mastery of language is measured by the ability to answer questions on random facts about language rather than an ability to use it like a native speaker. In some situations such a person may have some usefulness, but in dealing with Indian languages which bear no resemblance whatever to traditional grammar the result is once again utter bafflement.

People like these have, of course, participated in teaching Indian children. Unless there has been a sudden and unannounced change, they are still with us in great numbers. The results are what we should expect -- catch as catch can at best. Now I am not an evangelical linguist in the sense that I look on linguistics as the hope and salvation of Western culture. But it seems to me that when and where we have this splendid resource we are doing ourselves and our students a disservice to ignore it. Primarily, to be sure, we expect those who are English teachers to need the techniques of linguistics, but some of the understandings are profitable to all participants in Indian education, including bus drivers and manual arts instructors.

Linguistics is, as we know, a scientific approach to language. It applies to language in general in the sense that there are procedures which apply more or

less to any language one might name. But it applies to every language in particular because every language requires a unique analysis. In other words, there is no universal grammar which we learn once for all and then apply with minor variations to everything from English to Swahili. We used to do that with Latin grammar and often still do. When I say further that linguistics is scientific I mean that it is systematic. The investigator endeavors to discover basic regularities within a given language, to codify them, to identify the exceptions, and then to check the validity of his statement.

In one sense people have been linguists ever since the first human beings began to talk, and more especially after they started asking questions about talk. But in recent decades we have learned that there is no such thing as universal grammar at all. In other words, the notion that knowing nouns and verbs and phrases is somehow a major item of relevancy in language learning -- this we have tossed out. Instead we have come to understand that every language is in a sense unique and that people express meanings by quite different devices, depending on the language they use. Indeed, categories which are very important in one language are rather trivial and wholly optional in another. That is to say, languages are structured differently.

Let me give an example of structure. In English we depend heavily on the notion of plurality in our system of nouns. Not only may we pluralize nouns, but we are obliged to, because this is one of several devices by which the speaker of English identifies the noun within the larger utterance. There are several such devices -- the word the, for example, and certain positions within the sentence itself -- but we depend very much on plurality. Also it is a device by which we tie our nouns to their respective verbs. Now it is possible to ignore the matter of plurality and to use only singulars, or worse, to use singulars and plurals completely at random. The result is confusion. People don't understand what is being said and they often become angry.

But over against English is Navajo in which plurality is not systematic at all. In order to show plurality the speaker attaches a number or general quantifier to the noun and this does very well. On the other hand, the Navajo youngster learning English is required to consider as obligatory a distinction that he always regarded as optional, and this is not easy to do. Teachers who have tried to make these children learn conventional English have supposed that the children must be stupid to ignore such a basic matter. It is not stupidity at all, but a transfer to a completely different structure.

Not until the teacher realizes that plurality is a structural feature of English for which Navajo offers no parallel is there much chance of doing any systematic teaching. In fact, one's teaching depends on a reasonably accurate picture of the way English operates as a language. We have often ignored this. We have imagined that the ability to parse an English sentence into nouns, verbs, prepositions and so on was vital to knowing the language. Navajo or Papago or Hopi were primitive languages. If one knew the Indian word for various things and actions the rest of the language somehow took care of itself and further it did not much matter. The truth of the matter is that as teachers of English we do not have to learn Navajo or any other Indian language, but the composition of that language does matter a great deal for the simple reason that this is what the speaker of that language uses in order to discourse. He can learn scores of new words, possibly a completely new vocabulary. To be competent in his new language he needs also and above all to master the structure of that language.

This structure operates on several so-called levels. One of the first is that

of the sound system. Those of us who have worked with Navajo realize that the speaker of that language employs quite a few sounds which speakers of English never produce except by accident. Speakers of English, on the other hand, find that for intelligibility they are required to make a number of sounds which the Navajo never uses and which in any case never constitute a minimal distinction between words. Sounds like /r/ or /p/ or /ʔ/ have no more significance for him than the glottalized affricates of Navajo have for us. Where English has nine primary vowels and numerous diphthongs, Navajo has four primary vowels and no real diphthongs. English has no long vowels in contrast to short ones; Navajo does. English has stress; in fact, three and possibly four stresses. Navajo has none. English has a sentence melody consisting of predetermined tones on specificaparts of a phrase or larger utterance; in Navajo tone is an integral feature of a vowel.

A second level of structure is grammatical. It has to do with marking the various parts of an utterance in relation to one another, identifying, for example, who or what is responsible for a particular state or activity, what the nature of that state or activity happens to be, and sometimes, what is the general result. Thus in English we have a subject, precicate and object. The identical word form may be employed in any of these three positions with nothing more than a change of position or marker. We can do the same thing in Chinese. But it is not possible in Latin or Navajo. These and many other matters the linguists have sought to describe in some detail.

A third level we may call lexicon or vocabulary. Not only is there no one-to-one correspondence between languages, but ofteh one's vocabulary distributes the universe of experience quite differently. Colors in English tend to be abstract. Even a color like turquoise or violet or chartreuse presently dissociates itself from a stone or blossom or liqueur and becomes an independent color. In Navajo a color is much more closely associated with a thing that has that color. It is a part of language study that we still know relatively little about, but we are gaining, and once more the linguists have made the greatest headway here.

As teachers we can never wipe clean the slate of from six to thirty years of language learning in order to start over fresh. We have to work with the habits of these years; for every new one we instil we have to break an old one. The reason I regard an acquaintance with linguistics absolutely essential to a teacher is that the teacher needs to know what is going on. He is always improvising and always running into unexpected situations. A human being is not an IBM punch card, but a cluster of complex habits and attitudes.

As language teacher we are not dealing with facts at all, but with complicated skills. A person uttering a ten-word sentence has called into play as many muscles and neural reflexes as a man who chops cordwood for eight hours. Often we try to measure language competence as though it were a body of fact, as though being able to fill a work-book or supply true-and-false answers could enable us to determine by a number grade whether one person is more competent than another.

When I speak of being linguistically sophisticated I mean knowing something about the way one's own language operates plus the way other languages are likely to operate. Such sophistication permits the teacher to provide his students with the most efficient possible approach to learning the language. It calls for organizing material, for arranging it in order perhaps in order of difficulty or of usability or the fact that it happens to be fundamental to many things which follow. Now in order to be able to program material in this manner the teacher has to know how language is put together, but just as importantly what

will happen if he ignores certain fundamental facts about language in general. Not only will he do this in teaching the relevant sounds of English as contrasted with those of the mother tongue, but he will do it in teaching structures like statements, requests, and questions, or such elaborations as predication, modification, and the like. No matter how brilliant or personable a teacher may be, he will not know these things by himself. They have to be learned as an independent discipline. And only after he has learned them can he apply them. That is why linguistics is important to those who essay to teach speakers of other languages, whether young or old.

J. J. Lamberts
April 12, 1962

SENTENCE STRESS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

by

HERB HUEBSCH

When you speak, you are engaged in very complex behavior. Considering just the linguistic aspect of this behavior, you are making sounds, which you carefully select and arrange to make particular words. You add other words and word endings to indicate certain grammatical facts, for example "the" to indicate noun-to-follow and apostrophe to indicate possession. You arrange these sound groups in a certain order to give them further meaning, for example, you might structure the words "henry-the-won-patrick-race" into "Patrick Henry won the race" or "The Henry Race Patrick won." Finally, you give your utterance a certain variable pace (rhythm or duration), a breath-force pulse (stress or accent), and a melody (pitch or intonation), which combine to add other meanings to your utterance including how you feel about what you say. For example, by varying duration, stress, and pitch, "Help me" can sound desperate, matter-of-fact, or even humorous. Speech, then, is a complex process combining many elements, including the language feature called stress, which we will now examine more closely.

When a person says, "You have placed the accent on the wrong syllable," he is referring to what linguists call stress. Stress is "the degree of force with which a sound or syllable is uttered."(An Outline of English Phonetics by Daniel Jones) It is a push of the diaphragm. In the words "arrow," "tower," and "pretty," stress falls on the first syllable, while it appears in the last syllable in "repeat," "giraffe," and "percent." Linguists consider stress distinct from the length of time a sound may be uttered and from the changes of pitch of the utterance, although in actual speech these three elements are often found together, stress being generally more likely where length increases and pitch rises.

Linguistic information on the operation of stress in individual words, and to a lesser extent in individual phrases, is generally available. Linguists have noted, for example, that most words have only one strong stress, although a few words, like "prepaid," have two. They point out that it is stress which sometimes distinguishes between similar spoken words or phrases: green 'house (a house that is green) and 'greenhouse (a glass building for growing plants); a 'moving van (van for moving) and a 'moving 'van (van that is moving). And they have noted that English words of Anglo-Saxon origin retain primary stress in derivative forms (e.g., 'love, 'lovely, 'loveliness) while

English words of Latin or Greek origin move stress back with the addition of new endings (e.g., 'equal, e'quality, e-quali'tarian). These and other aspects of word and phrase stress are discussed in language and linguistic journals (e.g., American Speech) and in books, especially books dealing with English phonetics. Yet there is another area of stress which has received relatively little attention: sentence stress.

A quick look in the dictionary will reveal that every word has its own built-in stress, indicated by the accent mark in the pronunciation key to the word. Any tampering with the location of these word stresses is immediately noticed. If someone spoke to you of a 'banana, you would be likely to conclude that the speaker was either foreign, joking, or ignorant, assuming even that you recognized the word as English. A moment's thought, however, will confirm the obvious fact that we do not generally talk in individual words but in groups of words and that these groups of words or sentences contain stress which applies to the sentence rather than to the word. If interior word stress were the only stress in an English sentence, the sentence "When are you coming over?" would be accented "'When 'are 'you 'coming 'over," a stress pattern which we have, but use only rarely, to indicate anger, or, perhaps, to combat a poor telephone connection. But normally we would say, "'When are you coming 'over?" Although each word still retains its internal stress, the pattern of sentence stress by syllable is now heavy-light-light-medium-heavy-light. Since there is such a phenomenon as sentence stress in the English language, then, the question arises, "How does sentence stress operate in English?" The following pages report the results of an attempt to find some answers to this question.

Material for this study was gathered by tape recorder from spoken English, about eighty-five percent from conversations, five percent from a radio newscast, and ten percent from the dialogue of a television drama. From these tapes two hundred sentences were selected at random and typed onto strips of paper. Each sentence was then played over numerous times while the locations of stresses were identified and marked on the strips. The resulting sentences were then studied in various ways. A word needs to be said about the notation I will use. Linguists generally recognize four levels of stress according to the force used in producing the sound: primary, secondary, tertiary, and unstressed. I mark primary stress by an accent mark higher than the typing; secondary, even with the typing; tertiary, lower than the typing; and I do not mark unstressed syllables. It is important to remember that these stress marks are placed BEFORE the stressed syllable.

The study first examined the possibility that stress operates as an indicator of important grammatical units in sentences. If this hypothesis were true, stress would indicate such sentence units as the subject, principal verb, direct object, predicate adjective, and so on. In some sentences this hypothesis seemed accurate, for example

in "'You got 'something that be'longs to 'me." But in the sentence --"And they've always come through just like them" -- neither the subject nor the verb is stressed. And the direct object is unstressed in "And the 'very next 'year the ,wind ,blowed the 'other side of the ,roof ,off." Other exceptions were so numerous that some other hypothesis was needed.

Perhaps, it is sentence structure that dictates stress patterns. In other words, instead of falling on grammatically important words, perhaps stress falls in approximately the same places in sentences having the same structure. Upon examination, some patterns did show up. Imperative sentences always (so far as my data went) began with a stressed syllable. Stress appeared on the first word of all question sentences starting with interrogative adverbs (like "How," "When," "What") and never on the first word of questions starting with auxiliary verbs (like "did," "Are"). Stress occurred on the last word of almost all questions, regardless of the type of interrogative structure, except in very short sentences. But, by far, the majority of sentences are of the declaratory type; and here the theory ran into trouble. Examine the following two sets of sentences, both sentences in each set having roughly the same grammatical structure.

Set 1. Yeah, it'll 'probably catch ,up with him a'gain.
It 'come in awfully 'handy.
Set 2. Ah, 'they, 'they're be,hind the..ah..ah..the 'ice tea spoons are be'hind the 'tea spoons.
And it was 'nearly ,twenty-five ,hundred.

While there are some similarities in stress location within these sets, it would be very difficult if not impossible to formulate patterns which would allow one to predict where stresses would fall in these sentences and even in the imperative and interrogative sentence interiors. The failure of grammatically important words and grammatical structure to shed light on the operation of English sentence stress indicates an important likelihood. In English, sentence stress seems to operate independent of grammatical factors.

Instead, all the evidence of this study indicates that sentence stress operates as an indicator of important words, words which carry the burden of meaning, both lexical and emotional meaning. For example, if I said to you, "move-prevent-outflow-gold," you would have the substance of the sentence -- "It would be another move to prevent the outflow of American gold." You would expect with the importance-theory to find the above four words marked by primary stress; and this is the case: "It would be an,other 'move to pre-'vent the 'outflow of A,merican 'gold." Actually, sentence stress operates like a kind of audible underlining, attracting attention much like the visible underlining in writing. Let's check this theory in a few more sentences. "I'll get 'Herb a napkin." It seems funny, here, that "napkin" is not

also stressed, but the context in which a sentence is spoken must always be considered. The speaker had just given Bill a napkin, so that napkin was clearly understood from the context. Moreover, the word "napkin" as well as other unstressed words are heard even though they are not important enough to receive stress. What about the sentence "I didn't 'draw on it"? Certainly "-n't" is important because if it were left out, the entire meaning of the sentence would be reversed. Once again "didn't" was heard even if it wasn't stressed. Moreover, the location of the stress itself indicates negation, for in the positive form of the sentence, "did" would be stressed: "I 'did ,draw on it." The next sentence indicates the subtlety of stress usage. "Their 'barn was a good long 'ways from the 'house." Why wasn't "long" Stressed instead of "ways"? The conversation from which this sentence was pulled reveals that the barn was not very far from the house, except for insurance coverage purposes. Stressing "ways" instead of "long" probably was the means chosen to limit the impression of distance.

The importance-theory of sentence stress also explains some observations made earlier. When stress falls on grammatically important words, it is not because of grammatical characteristics at all, but because words that are subjects, main verbs, and objects are likely to be important to the meaning of the sentence, and thus stressed. Likewise, the first word in imperative sentences is always the word indicating the action to be performed (e.g., "Go home." "Leave a note.") Its importance warrants stress. The consistencies found in interrogative sentences can also be explained in similar fashion.

One other feature of sentence stress in English should be noted. English basically has stress-timed rhythm in contrast to syllable-timed rhythm. An example of the latter is the sentence "'Susie 'is a 'tattle 'tale." Stress-timing means that stress tends to occur at regular intervals. This feature means that words between stresses tend to be rushed or slowed so that the next stress arrives on beat. In the sentence "You 'do this song a'gain in about two 'months and you'll see a 'difference," the four syllables of "and you'll see a" fill about the same time span as "this song." Notice that this feature has been described as a tendency. English rhythm has plenty of variety. In the following sentence, both the variety of the sentence as a whole and the rhythmic tendency coming into play in the last four words are apparent: "The ,only reason I'm 'calling the Ex'press is 'Julie 'Allison."

Stress rhythm appears occasionally to place some pressure on the location of stress. Ninety-nine percent of the time, sentence stress falls where a word would be normally accented. When a word is stressed elsewhere, it is necessary to ask why. One of the sentences recorded was the following: "But ,they col'lected 'insurance." Possibly, "insurance" was the customary pronunciation for that speaker. Nevertheless, the stress pattern up to the "in-" syllable has been unstressed-stressed-unstressed-stressed-unstressed. Stress on "in-" would complete this pattern. The same situation occurs in another accent dislocation: "So you're a'fraid you'll

ˈthink of this ˈice ˈcream and ˈpeaches next ˈtime you ˈwork. Well, the ˈidea is so you ˈget yourself ˈtrained so that when you ˈsit there you ˈwork." Here an unstressed-stressed rhythm developes at the end of the first sentence. If the pattern prevailed, the next stress would be on "the." The stress on "i-" makes us feel that the speaker couldn't bring himself to stress as unimportant a word as "the" but also couldn't bear the rhythmic pressure long enough to get to the normally stressed syllable "-dea." Admittedly, the matter of stress-pattern pressure is conjectural, but the fact that in each of the four accent dislocations found in the data there was a preceding stress pattern which might have been the cause should not be ignored.

How does sentence stress operate in the English language? Rather than being related to grammatical functions, sentence stress acts as a pointer to areas of importance in a sentence. Although we have only been concerned with stress in this paper, remember that duration, pitch, tone of voice, gestures and other elements of speech are also operating at the same time, sometimes in identical functions. For a further discussion of some of these elements in relation to stress, see Kenneth L. Pike's The Intonation of American English, University of Michigan Press, 1945. My findings on sentence stress are confirmed in a more recent book, An Outline of English Phonetics by Daniel Jones, in which he writes: "As a general rule...the relative stress of the words in a sequence depends on their relative importance."

THE NATIONAL INTEREST AND THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

This report was prepared by the committee on National Interest of the National Council of Teachers of English in cooperation with the Center for Applied Linguistics of the Modern Language Association, the Linguistic Society of America, the Institute for International Education, and the National Association of Foreign Student advisers. Much of the factual data included in this document was obtained from the National Interest and the Teaching of English, published by the National Council of Teaching of English, from the forthcoming World Language Survey of the Center for Applied Linguistics, from offices of state and city superintendents of public instruction, and from various governmental agencies.

THE NATIONAL INTEREST AND THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

"In terms of the numbers of pupils and teachers, of time-table hours and of geographic extent, the teaching of English as a second language is the biggest educational undertaking in the world today." So states the London Times, which also points out that although the expressed aims of English teaching vary from place to place, no language has ever before had so many teachers and pupils of many linguistic, racial, cultural, and social backgrounds nor has any been required "to act as an international lingua franca at such a diversity of levels." *

*G. E. Perren, "Babel at Arm's Length," The London Times Educational Supplement, #2354 (July 1, 1960), p. 10.

English is taught as a subject in secondary schools throughout Europe, Central America, South America, and in many parts of Asia. It is used as the medium of instruction, usually beginning in the upper elementary grades, in parts of Asia and many parts of Africa. According to one informed estimate, almost 300 million people now speak English as a first or second language.

The teaching of English as a second language is a major educational undertaking within the United States as well. Hundreds of thousands of students throughout our several states and territories are learning English as a second tongue. Our public and private schools provide untold numbers of Americanization classes for adults or special English instruction for the children of immigrants; our colleges provide special facilities for foreign students. In addition, four major agencies of the United States government are concerned with the teaching of English both in this country and overseas. All of these programs draw upon a slim cadre of properly prepared teachers.

The heritage of the English-speaking peoples is inseparable from the language through which it is transmitted; to encourage the teachings of our language, both abroad and at home, is to broaden and improve understanding of the United States and the English-speaking peoples. Moreover, such teaching must frequently be coordinated with programs of cultural and technical assistance to non-English speaking countries since an inadequate knowledge of English can be an obstacle to study and research in many subject fields. Clearly the national interest demands that the United States exercise leadership in this important area. Yet despite greatly intensified activity in all phases of language teaching during recent years, our country is faced with a serious shortage of qualified

teachers of English as a second language. The data presented in this brief report indicate the extent of activity in this country and abroad; the compelling need for effective national leadership in this important area is manifest.

Facts About The Teaching of English as a Second Language in This Country

1. English is taught as a second language throughout Puerto Rico as well as to all Puerto Ricans who have migrated to the continental United States.

   The present population of Puerto Rico is about 2,500,000 and most speak Spanish as their native language.

   The New York City schools alone face the task of teaching English to a Spanish-speaking populace of 800,000 including 700,000 Puerto Ricans. According to the New York Times, one out of every ten persons in New York City speaks Spanish.

2. English is taught as a second language to children in schools administered by the Bureau of Indian Affairs, public and mission schools.

   An estimated 108,000 Indians live in non-English-speaking homes. Of the 45,000 Indian children in federal elementary and secondary schools, an estimated 80 per cent come from full-blood families where English is not the native language.

3. English is taught as a second language in Americanization classes offered by local school boards throughout the country.

   During 1960, in New York State alone, Americanization programs were conducted in 364 separate communities.

   The Americanization School of the District of Columbia regularly enrolls an average of 1,500 students.

   Americanization programs are offered in virtually all metropolitan centers. Directors of these programs repeatedly experience difficulty in finding and attracting qualified teachers of English as a second language.

4. English is taught as a second language in many regular school programs. In certain metropolitan centers the need for such teaching is a crucial educational program.

   During 1958-1959, California schools offered 1,037 classes in English as a second language with total enrollment of 37,647 students. During 1959-1960,

the number of classes increased to 1,080. The city schools of Los Angeles alone enroll 3,538 students in such classes.

Texas educates approximately 500,000 Spanish-speaking school children, mostly of Mexican heritage, a substantial percentage of whom come from homes in which English is not spoken. Because so many of these students must spend the first school year learning to speak English, rather than in regular first grade work, the Texas legislature has approved a summer school program for preschool non-English-speaking children. During 1960, more than 15,500 children were enrolled in this institute; even more are expected during 1961. This special training is still not sufficiently widespread to reach the majority of Spanich-speaking children who often remain linguistically handicapped throughout their schooling. Specially trained elementary teachers are needed for work with such children.

Maine teaches English as a second language to thousands of Franco-American children. In some communities the percentage of French-speaking people totals as high as 90 per cent.

In the city schools of Detroit an estimated total of 5,800 adults will be enrolled this year in English classes for foreign born, including citizenship classes. The annual enrollment has ranged from 5,200 to 8,800 during the past five years.

Dade County, Florida, faces an influx of Spanish-speaking pupils from Cuba and elsewhere. About 30,000 speakers of Spanish were located in that area before the sudden increases.

Seven and a half per cent of the students in New York junior high schools are receiving special instruction in English as a second language.

Approximately six per cent of the total population are immigrants, according to a rough estimate from the United States Bureau of the Census. A substantial portion of these immigrants do not speak English as a native language. Precise information on the non-English-speaking populace is available from the Bureau of Census summary of the special questionnaire administered as part of the 1960 census.

5. English is taught as a second language to students and teachers from other countries who study at selected American colleges and universities.

(Forty-seven thousand foreign students are enrolled in American colleges.)

From 1944 to 1960, more than 3,000 teachers and other educational officials

were brought to this country under provisions of the Smith-Mundt Act or Fulbright Act. Many of these were instructed in English as a second language.

Some type of English language and orientation program is offered at 134 colleges and universities in 37 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico.

Facts About The Teaching of English as a Second Language in Other Countries.

1. Agencies of the United States government are increasingly concerned with the teaching of English overseas.

   The Department of State maintains an exchange program under the Fulbright and Smith-Mundt Acts whereby awards are granted to United States personnel to go abroad and to foreign personnel to come to the United States for a period of one year.

   The United States Information Agency (USIA) engages in the teaching of English as a second language as part of its cultural activities at information and binational centers throughout the world.

   The International Cooperation Administration (ICA) is engaged in three kinds of educational projects which involve the teaching of English as a second language; providing instruction in English as a means of preparing foreign technicians who are sent to the United States for study; improving English language programs in national school systems as part of the technical assistance to education; and teaching English as a second language to employees in ICA missions abroad.

   The Military Assistance Advisory Group program sends technicians overseas to install language laboratory equipment in military installations for use in the study of English. English language instruction is necessary to prepare foreign military personnel to participate in technical training courses given through the medium of English.

2. Nongovernmental foundations and institutions are engaged in overseas English teaching projects.

   Various programs for improving the teaching of English on a countrywide basis are supported by foundations in such areas as India (Ford), the Philippines (Rockefeller), Indonesia (Ford), and Taiwan (Asia).

   In some areas of the world, industrial firms have developed programs in teaching English to local employees.

The Institute of International Education has been much concerned about the teaching of English as a second language in connection with its administration of programs for the exchange of governmental, academic, and other personnel in the country and abroad.

A group of American universities and affiliated secondary schools in the Middle East, sponsored by the Near East College Association, use English as the medium of instruction and, concomitantly, have programs for the teaching of English as a second language.

The Need for National Support and Leadership

Crucial programs for teaching English as a second language in this country and overseas can be maintained and strengthened only if our nation develops a continuing supply of well-trained personnel. The demand for properly trained personnel will become increasingly acute as a result of the large expansion of activity being planned by the government and by the foundations in answer to the demand, especially on the part of newly developing nations, for widespread teaching of English as a second language.

Any such program should have three goals: preparing personnel for the schools of this country, preparing them for service overseas (including the preparation of a "Peace Corps" if such a program develops), and preparing in this country students from abroad. All of these effort already suffer from a critical shortage of trained personnel and from a lack of preparatory programs to supply the needed teachers. The number of specially developed college programs is limited:

> Degree programs with an emphasis on the teaching of English as a second language are offered at only eleven colleges and universities in the United States.
>
> A high percentage of the students in these programs are foreign teachers of English. During 1960-1961, reliable estimates indicate that not more than 61 American students are enrolled full time in such academic programs.
>
> Five other schools offer courses in English as a second language in conjunction with literacy programs and linguistics.

Especially crucial for teachers of English as a second language is their preparation in the application of linguistics to language teaching problems. The Committee on Language Programs of the American Council of Learned Societies identifies five important contributions of linguistics to the teaching of a second language: the scientific analysis of the language to be taught, the study of the contrasts between the

language to be taught, the study of the contrasts between the learner's native language and the language being learned, the study of the physiology of the sound production in the context of the significant features of the language, the study of the writing system and its relation to the spoken language, and the study of the general nature of language.

At the present time American colleges and universities are neither educating teachers in the basic essentials of linguistics nor educating graduate students who can serve as the teachers of teachers.

> Only 17.4 per cent of our teacher training schools require prospective high school teachers of English to complete even a basic course in English grammar.
>
> Not more than 5.3 per cent of our teacher training institutions ask prospective elementary teachers to study the history and structure of English; only slightly more than a third expect such teachers to study grammar and usage.
>
> Twenty-four institutions offer graduate degrees in linguistics, but during 1960, only approximately 325 graduate students were registered in linguistic programs as such. Moreover, only a fraction of this number will receive advanced degrees and be prepared to teach. During 1955-1959, an estimated 74 students obtained Ph. D's in linguistics and 250 received master's degrees, an indication of the nation's vital weakness in this important area. Some additional personnel undoubtedly obtain advanced degrees in English or in other languages with an emphasis on language study, but the total number available still falls far short of the demand. Moreover, many of the graduate students in linguistics are studying historical problems or are interested in some special area unrelated to the application of linguistics to the teaching of English as a second language.

The present insturctional situation is not likely to improve unless a concerted effort is made to offer special institutes on language study for practicing teachers, to encourage graduate study and research, and to recruit and educate more college teachers in this area. As the Committee on Language programs of the American Council of Learned Societies recently pointed out, many governmental and nongovernmental agencies and institutions depend upon the applications of linguistic knowledge, but current governmental programs do not adequately support the study of linguistics in this country.

Demands for more assistance with English teaching abroad are growing so rapidly that the U. S. agencies operating overseas programs are now studying ways and means of increasing assistance in this area. One limiting factor in considering any greatly

expanded effort abroad is the scarcity of trained personnel to staff overseas English teaching programs.

A concerted national effort is needed on the part of English teachers, foreign language teachers, linguists, and psychologists to strengthen present preparatory programs. Immediate and widespread support must be given to studying the relationship between the teaching of English as a foreign language and the teaching of other modern languages.

Jan Abbott

G R E E T I N G S

In teaching the English language to a non-English speaking individual, our goal is to help that person become a functioning member of our culture. We must help him to understand what kind of communication will be permitted, and what kind will be resented. We must help him to keep certain channels open for communication.

It is logical that the first verbal contacts between individuals of different languages and cultures will be found in everyday greetings. Greetings are for real. People do not pretend these. Greetings must be learned properly or they may lead into unexpected difficulties.

Some greetings are picked up as a matter of course. Others involve judgements. The right response must be given for what is expected or hoped for. Greetings may just be expressions of friendliness, or they may actually categorize a person. It is the attitude we respond to, rather than the greeting. We must train the student what to look for as well as what to listen for.

Although the classroom situation is limited, it can be utilized quite effectively if we take advantage of every opportunity which may present itself. It is a mark of friendliness to say 'Good Morning', and 'Hello' can be used at any time. Visitors do come into the classroom, and introductions help prepare the student for meeting the wider community of the English speaking world.

GREETINGS and Courtesies of English

When we consider human relations, we see the need for suitable greetings in the local community. Appropriate greetings, offered with correct pronunciation and intonation, are effective in improving human relations anywhere we might be. And these greetings can be quickly learned through the processes of hearing, imitating and repeating.

Listen. Repeat. Memorize. These are the three basic principles of learning to speak effectively any new language.

"Good morning, John."

"Good morning, Mrs. Blossom."

"How are you?"

"I'm fine, thank you."

The sound system of a language, its intonation and its rhythm should be taught as part of listening, reading, speaking and writing. The pupils initial contact with the flow of speech will come from hearing the sentence the teacher gives orally, by repeating them without seeing them, and then by repeating them with the words before their eyes.[1]

The activities connected with language learning may be adapted to the age of the learner. Language should be taught in a context which has meaning for the age group and ability level of the learner, and should take the pupils from the confines of the classroom into the wider community of the English speaking world.

1. Mary Finocchiaro, Teaching English as a Second Language, Harper and Bros. New York, 1958 P 127

Sample Lesson in Greetings

A possible first lesson with beginners.[2]

A. Topic - greetings and identification.

B. Aims - general
1. To develop language competence.
2. To present forms of greeting and of identification in English speaking countries.

Aims - specific
1. To teach meanings and use of expressions such as
"Good Morning," or "Good Evening."
"What is your name?"
"My name is _____."

C. Teacher pre-planning.
1. Get a list of your pupils' names and addresses.
2. Have library cards and pencils available.

D. Approach and development
1. When pupils are seated the teacher will greet the class with a cheery and smiling "Good Morning." By gestures (pointing to them and opening her mouth as though to speak) she will ask them to say "Good Morning" in chorus. Much choral and individual practice is given.

2. Depending on the age of the pupils, this expression is written at board and followed again by chorus and individual repetition.

3. After sufficient practice has been given in "Good Morning," the teacher will point to herself and say: "My name is ____." She will repeat that two or three times and will write her name only at the blackboard.

4. Then, using her class list, she will call a child by name. When the child raises his hand, the teacher will say softly, "Joseph Lee." "Say" (this is in a louder voice and with gestures) "My name is Joseph Lee."

5. Joseph Lee repeats, "My name is Joseph Lee."

6. After each pupil has been called upon in this way, each person is asked to stand and to introduce himself; e.g. "Good Morning. My name is (own name.)"

E. Follow up.
The next lesson may consist of the teacher's making "What is

2. Ibid p. 318

your name?" a part of the pupils active vocabulary.

F. Steps in development.
The next step is to teach the children to ask, "What is your name?"

1. Teacher should walk up to two students and indicate by gestures that one student will be asking another student his name.

2. Choral repetition.

3. Individual repetition.

4. Practice.

Class members may take turns greeting guests, introducing visitors, and serving as hosts and hostesses for class parties or programs.

Frances G. Koenig said that "Deviation from the average local speech pattern causes tension."[3] This tension can be released by such things as puppetry and music. These release the child from the feeling of being observed alone. He thus has something else to occupy his attention.

When a child realizes that there is a use for what he is learning, he proceeds faster than when he is learning only to please the teacher.

We must provide experiences for language pattern teaching through (1) arranging experiences which give rise to language, and (2) presenting a language pattern around which situations for presentation and practice are built.[4]

3. Frances G. Koenig, "Improving Language Abilities of Bilingual Children, Exceptional Children. February 1953 pp 183-186.

4. Finocchario 122 ff

All activities should lead to the development of language competency and to an understanding of the cultural values of the country whose language is being learned.

Finocchiaro gives us some suggestions for vocabulary and pattern teadhing.

1. The initial vocabulary and sentence patterns to be developed should arise, if possible, from an experience in which the pupils themselves have participated.

2. Vocabulary and sentence patterns should be clearly interrelated and should be pertinent to a specific topic or experience.

3. Important sentence patterns for active use should be practiced until students can understand them and use them in any communication situation.

4. New language forms should be presented and practiced with a limited known vocabulary. It is unwise to bring in at one time more than one new language difficulty.

5. Language should be built on patterns or forms over which pupils already have some control, for example:

a. You know John.
b. (Do) you know John?
c. (Do) you know John's (brother)?

6. Other words can and should be substituted within the same sentence pattern. Knowing most of the parts of a sentence gives the pupils needed confidence. To illustrate:

a.	Do	they	know	(Mary)?
b.	(Do)	(we)	see	(John)?
c.	(Do)	(you)	recognize	(Frank)?
d.	(Do)	(I)	like	(Henry)?

7. Structural patterns which are familiar to pupils should be reintroduced and practiced again and again in other situations or with other experiences.

8. For beginning teaching, structural patterns should be selected on the basis of the following criteria:

a. They are easily demonstrable in the classroom.
b. They are useful in a wide number of situations.
c. Whenever this is possible, they are similar to structural patterns in the pupils native tongue.

ACTIVITIES FOSTERING LANGUAGE LEARNING

Participation and practice are important.

Listening
Greetings and leave-takings. Behavior patterns in various situations.
To learn vocabulary and patterns related to greetings and introductions.

Choral repetition
Class, group or row. Provide choral repetition before individual repetition - volunteers before non-volunteers.

Individual repetition
Word, phrase or sentence.
Take advantage of routine greetings.

Dramatization
Situations involving greetings.
Formal and informal emphasis.

Tape recordings
For comparison

Conversations
Real and simulated.
With a purpose whenever possible.

Interpreting pictures.
Pictures related to social occasions, customs, holidays, special days.

Telephone
Customs and conversation.
Take advantage of real situations.

Field trips
To places where English is spoken.
To homes where English is spoken.

Flannelboard
Arranging pictures or objects.

Puppets
Hand puppets and paper bag puppets.

Music
Song, Dances with words, etc.

Teachers will find that "boxing" or "framing" basic patterns helps pupils to see the basic structure and to combine and manipulate vocabulary and grammatical items. An example of boxing would be:

Mother	may	I	present	John.
Father	may	I	present	John.
John	may	I	present	_____
Mary	may	I	present	_____
	or			
Miss Smith	may	I	present	Mr. Brown.
Miss Jones	may	I	present	Mr. Smith.
Judge Smith	may	I	present	Mrs. Brown.
Senator Jones	may	I	present	Mr. Green.

This boxing is to help make clear to pupils the form or pattern of the language as used in these greetings.

CHORAL RESPONSE

According to Nelson Brooks , a repetition by the entire class of what has just been said by the teadher may be improved by following these suggestions:

1. Do not repeat with the students; make them wait until your utterance is finished. Use your hands to indicate when they are to perform. Insist that all the details of intonation, loudness, pause and change of pitch be observed.

2. Do not let a response drag in tempo - a whole class can repeat an utterance at the same speed as a single person.[5]

DIALOGUES

A dialogue is an exchange of conversation between two or more persons about a given situation or topic. In learning a specific greeting, a dialogue may reflect the most common mode of language use and is therefore of prime importance to the language learner. Participation in such greeting dialogue is a necessary part of early language learning.

PATTERN PRACTICE

For pattern practice the teacher selects greetings currently being emphasized and prepares a list of these for oral exercise in class. These are done without reference to printed words. Once they are well done as talk, they may then be redone, using both reading and writing.

Getting the students to talk consists mainly in providing him with the models to which he can refer as he speaks.

5. Nelson Brooks, Language and Language Learning, Harcourt, Brace & World Inc., New York and Burlingame, 1960. p 178

EXAMPLES of Language Patterns for Active Control.

Word Order: My name is _____.

Question Pattern: Who are you? or What is your name?
Who is he? or What is his name?
Who is she? or What is her name?

Answer pattern: I am _____. or My name is _____.
He is _____. or His name is _____.
She is _____. or Her name is _____.

* * * * * * *

Family Introductions and Greetings[6]

Mother, may I present _____.

Father, May I present _____.

This is my friend _____.

This is my sister Betty.

This is my brother Ray.

This is my Aunt Helen.

This is my Uncle John.

This is my Grandfather.

This is my Grandmother.

Response: How do you do.
or
I am very happy to meet you.

* * * * * * *

Casual Greetings

Hello

Hi

Where have you been?

My you look nice today.

Here comes John.

Hello there.

6. M. Ledge Moffett When We Meet Socially, Prentice-Hall, New York, 1940

What are you doing out on such a hot day?

What are you doing out on such a cold day?

What are you doing out on such a rainy day?

Imagine meeting you here!

I thought I recognized you!

* * * * * * *

Greetings requiring No. answer, except a smile.

A nod

Nod and hello.

Smile and nod.

Smile and hello.

Wave of the hand and smile.

* * * * * * *

EXCUSE ME

You may be excused when you must leave a person or group.

Please excuse me.
Response
Certainly
or
Of Course
or
(Just smile)

If you return to the person or persons.
Thank you for waiting.
Response
None necessary (Just smile)

* * * * * * *

FORMAL GREETINGS

How do you do.
Response: Very well, thank you.

Good morning - used before 12 noon.
Good afternoon - used after 12 noon and before dark.
Good evening - used after sunset.
Good night - final greeting at parting - used after sunset.

ACCENT OF PARDON

You may be pardoned when you HAVE to pass in front of someone.[7]
when you ACCIDENTALLY push a person.
when you UNINTENTIONALLY step on a persons toes.
when you interrupt before you realize that the other speaker has not finished.
when you speak to a stranger for a good reason.
when you are thrown against a person accidentally.

Pardon me, please,
or
Please pardon me.
or
Pardon me.
or
I'm sorry.

Response
Certainly
or
Of course
or
Thats all right.

* * * * * * * *

Greetings requiring PERMISSION

May I have the honor? Meaning, will you dance with me?
or
May I sit down with you?
May I get you something to eat?
Can I get you something to eat?
May I get you something to drink?
Can I get you something to drink?
May I help you?

Response: Yes, thank you.
or
No, thank you.

7. Sophie C. Hadida Manners for Millions, Doubleday Doran and Co. 1936.

GREETINGS AT PARTIES

Would you care to dance?
or
May I have this dance?

Response - Yes, thank you.
or
No thank you. I am going to rest through this one.
or
Thank you. I am going to sit this one out.
(Now she can not accept an invitation from another boy.)[8]

Boy
Thank you for the dance.

Girl
I enjoyed it too.
or
You are welcome.

Can I get you something to eat?
Response
Yes, thank you.
or
No, thank you. Not right now.
or
Yes, please

* * * * * * *

PENITENT GREETINGS

I'm sorry I was so long.
Thank you for waiting.

I'm sorry.
I'm sorry I was late.

Please forgive me.

Here I am at last! Thank you for waiting.

I'm so glad that you could wait.
Please excuse the delay.
Please excuse me.

I hope I haven't caused you any trouble.
I appreciate your waiting.

I'm sorry to be so tardy - but -
Any of these may be pre-ceded by formal greetings, such as Good morning, How do you do, etc.
No formal response is necessary, just a smile & nod.

8. Eleanor Boykin, This Way Please, MacMillan Co. N.Y. 1949

ENDEARING GREETINGS

Hello sweetheart.
Hi, honey,
Hello, sugar.
How are you, my dear?
Hello, dear.

* * * * * * * *

SPECIAL GREETINGS

Happy New Year.
Merry Christmas.
Happy Easter
Response, the same.

Happy Birthday.
Response, Thank you

* * * * * * * *

WEDDING GREETINGS

We always congratulate the man. [9]Never congratulate the woman, just offer her your good wishes.

Congratulations, Harry.
Response: Thank you.
or
Thank you very much.

I wish you much happiness, Mary.
Response: Thank you.
or
Thank you very much.

* * * * * * *

TELEPHONE GREETINGS[10]

Person calling -

May I please speak to _____?
This is _____.
or
This is _____/
Please may I speak to _____?
or
This is _____.
I would like to speak with _____.

9. Hadidá
10 Hadida

The person answering - Response

This is he.
This is she.
It is I.
or
This is _____(name)

He isn't at home. May I take a message?
She isn't at home. May I take a message?
Whom do you want?
Who is this please?
I beg your pardon?
I don't understand.
What did you say?
Certainly!
I understand.
Yes, I will.
Thank you.
Good-bye.

* * * * * * * *

GREETINGS by Tradespeople and Service men.

May I help you?
Can I help you?

Were you waiting for me?

Are you looking for something?

Is there something I can help you with?

What can I do for you?

What do you want?

What's the trouble?

Any of these may be pre-ceded by any of the formal greetings as Good morning, good afternoon, how do you do, good evening, etc.

Thank you for waiting.

I'm sorry it took so long.

GESTURES used in Greetings[11]

Handshake

1. Older woman extends her hand to a girl or to a boy.
2. Girl extends <u>her</u> hand to a boy or to a man.
3. Older man extends his hand to the boy.
4. Boy extends his hand only to another boy.

Hadida writes that "It is pleasant to shake hands with friends of whom we are fond, and with strangers at an introduction, if you feel pleased. The WOMAN takes the initiative in hand shaking.

<u>Other Gestures</u>

Boys raise their hat in greeting. (This depends on locality. In Arizona we rarely see hats or caps!)
or
Doff their cap.

Men raise their hat in greeting.

It is always permissible to <u>smile at</u> - and <u>nod to</u> - friends.

These gestures may be used along with formal greetings - such as Good morning, good afternoon, how do you do, etc.

* * * * * * *

GAMES FOR SMALL CHILDREN
in teaching Greetings

<u>Song</u>

Now the day is over
And we are going home,
Good-bye, good-bye
Until another day.

<u>Song</u>

How do you do my partner,
How do you do today
How do you do my partner
Come with me and we will play

<u>Song</u> - also can be used as <u>activity</u> combined with dance.
(tune - Frere Jaques - Brother John)

Good good morning
Good good morning (Partners shake hands)
How do you do
How do you do (Boys bow, girls curtsy)
Very well and thank you
Very well and thank you (Lock arms and swing)
Now Good-bye
Now Good-bye (Both boys and girls bow) Helen Harter[12]

11. Mary E. Clark and Margery C. Quigley, <u>Etiquette Jr.</u>, Doubleday Doran & Co., Garden City N.Y. 1931
12. Helen Harter, <u>English is Fun</u>. Tempe Ariz. 1956

FORMAL INTRODUCTIONS

1. Always mention the woman first, when a man is to be introduced to her. [13]

   Miss Smith, may I present Mr. Brown.
   Response
   How do you do.
   Miss Brown, Mr. Smith
   Response
   How do you do.

2. To introduce one man to another, mention the older man first.
   Mr. Smith, Mr. Jones
   Response
   How do you do.

3. When there are two women or two men always address first the older or more important person.

   Judge Smith, Mr. Jones
   Response
   How do you do.

   Mrs. Smith, may I present Miss Jones.
   Response
   How do you do.

4. To introduce a young person to an older person, address first the older person.

   Mrs. Smith, may I present Nancy Jones.
   Response
   How do you do.

   Mr. Smith, may I present Johnny Jones.
   Response
   How do you do.

5. A guest is introduced TO the guest of honor.

   Senator Smith, may I present Mrs. Jones.
   Response
   How do you do.

   Leave-taking.

   "I'm glad to have met you. I must go now."
   Response
   "Thank you. I hope I'll see you again, soon."
   Response
   "Thank you."

13. Boykin

As we can see by now, there is no end to the quantity and quality of informal greetings. Yet in formal situations, greetings are quite rigid and narrow. If the student is taught the correct formal greetings of our language, these may be substituted quite frequently in informal use, without too much fear of ridicule or misinterpretation. "Hello" and "How do you do" are always acceptable. It is the informal word which is more apt to become the downfall of the unwary. We must make the student aware of all the relevant clues which might trap him into a compromising response.

Informal greetings from strangers present all kinds of possibilities!

All language should be taught in a context which has meaning for the age group and the ability level of the learners, with emphasis on the integration of language and culture.

Remember, when we teach greetings we are also teaching "signals" clues to attitudes, to feelings, and to future behaviors. Let's teach them with significance. Lets teach them well.

Jan Abbott
ASU

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TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

By Grace Blossom

Since no two teaching situations are alike, any description of procedures leads to generalizations. There are, however, certain procedures that are applicable to most situations and it is with these that this paper will deal.

The number one problem of any teacher attempting to teach English as a second language is to rid her mind of the idea that reading is important. She must be able to look over and beyond reading and become aware of spoken language. This notion that reading is primary is the stumbling of many a teacher, through no fault of her own. She has been educated in a teacher training institution which puts little or no emphasis on the oral aspect of language while it puts great emphasis on reading. She has been led to think that the printed page is the language. A teacher must become aware that all written language is meaningless unless its spoken counterpart has been well established in the learner's mind. It is the peg on which to hang the material of the printed page. To put reading ahead of speaking can only lead to frustration and disappointment on the part of both the student and the teacher.

Let us assume that the first aim has been accomplished, namely, the awareness of the importance of the spoken

language, and proceed to step two, the preparation of materials. In preparing materials for teaching English as a second language the first need is for a basic vocabulary list. What words are to be taught? The one and only rule governing the choice of vocabulary words is usefulness. No word should be included in the first five hundred that is not immediately useful. For example, in preparing materials for Navajo students in a boarding school, one must determine whether the sleeping quarters are called dormitories, buildings, lodges or some other word. Whichever is used is the form to be taught. In addition to a basic word list the teacher will need a supplementary environmental list--words that will enable the student to adjust to his school life as quickly as possible. Such a list might include such words as auditorium, matron, advisor, nurse, dining room, or lunch room, bus, clinic and other words that are immediately useful to the student. Many word lists are available for use in writing materials for teaching English as a foreign language. Researching them is a time consuming task and each list will be found to have certain weaknesses. A very practical list is the one used as a basis for any set of basic readers. This list plus the environmental words has several advantages. It is long enough to carry the student through the first three years of school or longer. It is composed at first of speaking vocabulary words. It is available to all teachers and thus it

gives continuity of teaching from grade to grade. Later when reading is taught, the speaking and reading vocabularies are almost similar. Otherwise the teacher needs to check each reading lesson for words not previously taught. The basic reading list has an added advantage in that it allows the teacher to use the pictures in the reader in her teaching. The value of this may not be readily apparent since at first all teaching should be based on direct experience, but as the field widens, some teaching, especially with older students, will necessarily have to be based on vicarious experiences.

The teacher may not draw too heavily on the home life of the student for two reasons. One, all students do not have the same home life and the teacher may not be familiar enough with the student's culture to be able to draw from it as a basis for her materials. Second, the student needs to know language which is useful in our culture. In his own culture, he will doubtlessly have little need for English. Therefore, after some five hundred to seven hundred words, all in context and all based on experience, have been taught, the immediate environment will have been fairly well described. It will be more practical now in the long run to turn to pictures than to extended environmental experiences. Since the material, once developed, will be used several years, materials should not be built around a feature that may not be present year after year. For example, a pet of a certain color may die and be difficult to replace, or a yearly trip

become impractical. For example, material based on a trip to an airport or to a distant store is practically meaningless and very difficult to teach if for some reason the trip cannot be taken. Any materials that are not based on experience, either actual or vicarious, are extremely difficult to teach and to learn. The effort required to learn them cannot be justified. Learning a second language is extremely difficult at best and every effort should be made to make it as effective and as easy as possible.

In writing materials the first needs should be given first consideration. Usually the morning greeting, then perhaps requests for physical needs followed by directions for classroom procedures. The one rule again to follow is to teach first things first. The language needs of a day school student will differ from those of a boarding school student and the needs of an older student from those of a younger student. Again in writing materials do not use stilted formal bookish sentences. Use the statements that you, the teacher, habitually use in the class room. Later use the statements the students will hear and need to respond to outside the classroom. Keep the sentences, especially the first ones, short. A three word statement is learned more easily and quickly than a four or five word statement. Avoid six word sentences if possible. They are just too difficult to learn until the student has developed the ability to repeat and retain lengthy speech utterances. For example, do not teach "Please close the door" if a

student is going to hear, "Shut the door."

As materials are developed each word used should be checked on the basic vocabulary list. By doing this the teacher has complete control over her language program and the same words are not taught over and over while others are neglected. The late Dr. Tireman found that four words a day in context are a sufficient load for little children. Dr. Howard Tessen of the American Institute for Foreign Trade says that older students can cope with a learning load of eight new words a day. Of course, there must be continual reinforcement or review of previous lessons. Short language periods often are more effective than one or two long ones a day. In fact, every period of the day should have some oral language content. Songs that appeal to the students are one of the most effective ways of teaching a foreign language.

Opinions vary greatly as to the use of an informant or interpreter. In the beginning such a person can make the teacher's work much easier as he or she can bridge the gap between languages in a direct, effective way. The teacher also has the direct responsibility of teaching the student to listen and to repeat the lesson as she presents it. To develop a listening ability only is to lose fully half of the effectiveness of the lesson. She must also teach the student to mimic her as closely as possible. The importance of correct production cannot be over-emphasized. To neglect this and to allow a child to speak with an accent dooms him to a life time of speaking broken English. The importance of listening and REPEATING cannot be over-emphasized.

Repeating after and mimicking the teacher has two advantages. First, it develops in the student the habit of repeating until it becomes so automatic that he will do it out of school as well as in school. Second it gives the teacher an opportunity to correct any mispronunciations before they have become established. There is no reason why any student should develop an accent in learning to speak English. The teacher needs to get across to the student that if he will use his speech organs as a native speaker does, he will produce the same sounds as a native speaker. This is extremely important as it removes the mystery from language learning and prevents the start of an accent. An accent once established is nearly impossible to correct. The prevention is fairly simple. Any student who is having difficulty in repeating the lesson after it has been carefully presented should be checked for hearing loss or speech difficulty. Check to determine if he speaks his own mother tongue clearly.

The use of the tape recorder can make the teacher's work load easier. In learning a second language, the student must have a model to mimic. Either the teacher or a mechanical device must furnish this model. After the teacher has presented the lesson and the student has successfully mimicked her, he must still hear it repeated over and over to reinforce his memory and to give him added practice in both listening and repeating. Every lesson should be overlearned, anything less is useless. A teacher's throat

can become weary before the day's work is finished. A repeating device can take over at times and give the teacher a needed respite. It has two advantages; it does not tire and it does not become impatient.

In making tapes, the teacher should be guided by a few simple rules. If an informant or interpreter is used, he or she and the teacher should have a practice session to establish routine procedures. No informant should be asked to interpret material without first having been given time to study it. On the tapes the rate of speaking in the student's own language is not important. His ears are trained to follow rapid speech. The English version should, however, be spoken in a medium speed normal voice. The general rule is to pause between each sentence or utterance twice the length of time it takes to say it. Thus the sentence "How are you?" should be repeated silently twice by the speaker before recording the next sentence.

Once a basis for communication has been established the teacher's task becomes much easier since more difficult vocabulary items can be paraphrased by already learned words. For example, "He announced that dinner was ready," could be paraphrased by "He said that dinner was ready." This is an especially important point and one that the upper elementary teacher needs to be very much aware of. For the purpose of clarity, let us divide the second language learner's vocabulary into two sections: a talking vocabulary and a recognition or understanding vocabulary. A talking vocabulary is self

explanatory. A recognition vocabulary is composed of words found on the printed page but rarely used in talking. If this distinction is made clear to a student it will give him a better understanding of his problem. Often times a student wonders why he is learning recognition vocabulary words--words that he really doesn't need for everyday conversations. The fundamental reason lies in the sets of basic readers used in our schools. The readers of the first three grades are written in a carefully controlled speaking vocabulary. The student who has an adequate speaking vocabulary can learn to read these books quite easily. Beginning with the upper third grade readers and continuing on into the upper elementary readers the vocabulary shifts from the familiar talking vocabulary of the English learning student to a comprehension or recognition vocabulary. This explains the old Indian Service adage that retardation begins at the fourth grade level. It is not, however, retardation but frustration that faces the Indian child here. The Spanish speaking student faces the same frustrations. Many times the upper elementary teacher is not aware of the shift in vocabulary and assumes that since the student speaks English he also has a well developed comprehension vocabulary. Because of this often false assumption the student faces the second great challenge of his academic life and it is here that the schools most often fail him. His need for help to cope with this shift in vocabulary emphasis is just as great now as it was the day he entered the first grade.

The student's comprehension vocabulary is hidden and difficult to measure. The teacher should always assume that the bilingual student is very weak in this area and be prepared to give him a great deal of special help. For until this problem is recognized and materials developed to correct it, the schools will continue to have a high rate of drop-outs among the students who speak English as a second language.

REQUESTS

Requests are an important part of a foreign student's education because they imply cooperation. We live in a democratic society and the student of English, if he is to live in the U.S.A., will have to depend upon human cooperation. It is my belief that when you make a request the polite form should be used. If cooperation is what we desire, "Please" is a word that should not be forgotten.

The foreign student is soon introduced to requests. If the oral/aural approach is used, the teacher will introduce the requests in the form of questions almost immediately through her own speech habits and instructions. Example: "Please put away your books?"

Requests can take a variety of forms - questions, commands, and simple statements. Depending upon the individual teaching the course, forms of politeness, intonation of voice, and structure of sentences are introduced through classroom instruction. The teacher should analyze her own feelings and speech habits before entering the class because through her own intonation in making requests her students will know whether she considers them her inferiors, equals, or superiors. This is especially important in requests because the students will imitate the teacher.

The cultural background of the students must be thoroughly understood before requests are introduced--before the course begins. An example of one of the pitfalls in the area of requests is a culture that always demands the polite form of address. Americans usually use the familiar form, when making a request.

C. C. Fries suggests in his book Teaching and Learning English As A Foreign Language four basic steps in structure. I shall incorporate requests into each of the following four steps. A typical work sheet will follow for each of these four steps.

(1) For requests or directives the simple, uninflected form of the verb is sufficient without a preceding or following substantive.

"Come here."
"Be ready."
"Whistle."
"Fall down."

(2) Above the simplest level the teacher could then introduce requests with polite forms and proposals including the speaker.

"Please come here."
"Please be ready."
"I want you here."
"I want you to whistle."

(3) The third step includes the uses of may, can, must, might, should, could, would, with the simple, uninflected form of the verb to express various attitudes toward action; the alternative but common patterns for the expression of the future, for customary action, for repeated and continued action, and for necessity.

(4) The fourth step is beyond the beginning level and at this point we should give the student practice of limited patterns in single utterances in which there is a complete integration of all that has been learned. The teacher should also try to stimulate the students to use their knowledge and new-formed habits of structure in longer contexts.

First Step

"Come here."
"Go there."
"Be ready."
"Stand up."

"Stand here."
"Stand there."
"Get ready."
"Pass."

"Sit here."
"Sit there."
"Sit down."
"Stop."

Second Step

"Please come here."
"I want you here."
"John wants you here."
"They want you here."

"Please stand here."
"Please stand there."
"Please stand up."
"John stand up."

Third Step

"Can she do it?"
"Could she do it?"
"Might she do it?"

"May I go?"
"May John go?"
"May we go?"

Fourth Step

"Please be here at 3:00 P.M."
"Please be here tomorrow."
"Please be here Wednesday."

"Can you go to the store?"
"Could you go to the store?"
"May you go to the store?"

* Although the distinction between can and may still holds in formal speech and writing, it is usually disregarded in informal speech and writing.

Intonation carries the emotional meaning and in the area of requests, it could mean the difference between a request and a command.

"Come here!" --request
"Come, here!"--command

The teacher should stress the various intonations of requests, and commands to show the difference. Request patterns of intonation could be introduced with the first question and answer patterns.

Depending upon the ages of your students, cultural background, and their socio-economic needs certain areas of request and commands should be stressed. The best way to teach children is by example. If you say and teach patterns with the word "Please", the child will

imitate the polite form. I believe that we should teach children the polite forms and gradually as they master the English language they will adopt the typical patterns of their peer group. However, I believe we would be doing a disservice to children in a foreign country if we did not introduce them to the informal request and command patterns.

If the foreign student is an adult, requests and commands should be introduced in varying degrees throughout the course. C. C. Fries' four steps outlined earlier would be an example of the method to be used.

Forms of request should be on the same vocabulary level, as those of the current lessons. If for example the vocabulary lesson includes the names of foods, the teacher could use the opportunity to introduce certain request, for instance; "Please, pass the potatoes," "May I have another piece of bread."

If a class is made up of a certain occupational group, requests pertinent to that occupation should be explored. As the student progresses and you can see that the student has or will have an occasion to use the telephone, telephone requests both formal and informal should be explored.

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